QUALITY OF KNOWLEDGE IN GROUP DECISION SUPPORT SYSTEMS

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- Keywords: Incomplete information, knowledge representation, group decision support system, idea generation and argumentation.
- Abstract: In this work it is addressed the problem of knowledge evaluation in a VirtualECare Group Decision Supporting System (GDSS), in terms of an Multi-valued Extended Logic Programming language, which is aimed at sustaining online healthcare services. Indeed, reasoning with incomplete and uncertain knowledge have to be dealt with, due to the particular nature of the healthcare services, where the awful consequences of bad decisions, or lack of timely ones, demand for a responsible answer.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the last years, we have assisted to a growing interest in combining the advances in information society - computing, telecommunications and presentation - in order to create Group Decision Support Systems (GDSS). Indeed, the new economy, along with increased competition in today's complex business environments, takes the companies to seek complementarities in order to increase their competitiveness and reduce risks. In this scenario, planning takes a major role in a company life. However, effective planning depends on the generation and analysis of ideas (innovative or not) and, for this reason, the idea generation and management processes become a crucial tool in present days. GDSS are interactive computer-based systems aimed to help decision makers use communication technologies, information (structured or unstructured), knowledge and/or models to solve problems and make decisions, i.e., GDSS tend to be computer programs that recurring

to singular techniques may help, as the name point out, in the decision making processes (Parsons, 1996). Good decision making is an essential skill in any environment, and in particular in a healthcare one. Indeed, if you can learn to make timely and well-considered decisions, then you can lead. However, if you make poor decisions, your risk of failure and your time may, most likely, be short (Cruz-Correia et al, 2007) (Eysenbach, 2007) (Costa et al, 2007).

1.1 Group Decision Support System

It is expected that knowledge-driven GDSS will be more comprehensive, cover broader domains and give better advice (Power, 2007) and will also benefit from progress in more basic research on behavioral topics in the areas of organizational decision making, behavioral decision theory and organizational behavior (Conklin, 2001) (Conklin, 2006). Our objective is to apply the above presented GDSS, with the necessary change in order to understating uncertainty an quality of information, to a new sector. We believe the use of GDSS in the Healthcare sector will allow professionals to achieve better results in the analysis of one's Electronic Health Record (EHR) (According to ISO/DTR 20514:2005, EHR means a repository of patient data in digital form, stored and exchanged securely, and accessible by multiple authorized users).

This achievement is vital, regarding the explosion of knowledge and skills, together with the growing need to use limited resources more efficiently.

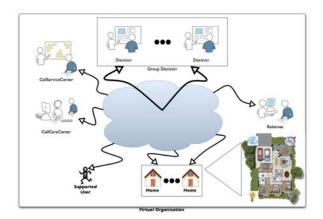


Figure 1: VirtualECare Environment.

1.2 Idea Generation and Argumentation

The Group Decision module (Figure 1 and Figure 2), as stated above, is a major module of the VirtualECare project. This fact, associated with the importance of decision-making in today business activity and with the needed celerity in obtaining a decision in the majority of the cases that this key module will be defied to resolve, requires a real effectiveness of the decision making process. Thus, the need for an Idea Generation tool that will support the meetings of the group decision participants, being those face-to-face, asynchronous or distributed, becomes crucial.

The flow of new ideas is central in an environment as the one presented above and after establishing individual ideas the participants are expected to "defend" those ideas in order to reach consensus or majority. Each participant will, therefore, and in a natural way, argue for the most interesting alternatives or against the worst alternatives, according to his/her preferences and/or skills, thus, by expressing their arguments, participants expect to influence the others' opinions and make them change their own (Brito et al, 2003). In order to make this meetings as productive as possible, participants must be kept updated, not only, with all the existing information but also with the respective quality measure and uncertain level.

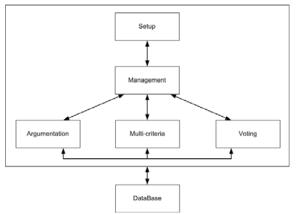


Figure 2: Group Decision Module Architecture.

We organize the paper as follows: First, we briefly present the VirtualECare environment. In Section 2 we discuss the knowledge representation and reasoning procedures in the context of the Extended Logic Programming language. In Section 3 we elaborate about the calculus for computing the Quality of Knowledge embodied in a logic theory or program. Finally, we presented the conclusions and foresee future work.

2 KNOWLEDGE REPRESENTATION AND REASONING

The knowledge representation in a knowledgedriven group decision support system is nuclear to the success of the overall operation (Way, 1991) (Analide et al., 2006) (Ginsberg, 1991).

A suitable representation of incomplete information and uncertainty is needed, one that supports non-monotonic reasoning. Historically, uncertain reasoning has been associated with Probability Theory, embodying non-Bayesian theories of subjective probability, as in the Dempster-Shafer Theory (Shafer, 1992). The Dempster-Shafter Theory is well-known for its usefulness to express uncertain judgments of

experts. This theory introduces the concept of belief functions and is based on two ideas: (i) obtaining degrees of belief for one question from subjective probabilities for a related question, and (ii) Dempster's rule for combining such degrees of belief when they are based on independent items of evidence. However, the use of belief functions may involve challenging computational problems. Beliefs are also represented in other contexts, for example multi-agent systems, where specialized classes are used to model a way of things, proposition or other information relevant to the system and its mental model (Cervenka and Trencansky, 2007). Another promising computational paradigm, Abductive Logic Programming (ALP) (Denecker and Kakas, 2002) has been recognized as a way to resolve some limitations of logic programming with respect to higher level knowledge representation and reasoning tasks. Abduction is a way of reasoning on incomplete or uncertain knowledge, in the form of hypothetical reasoning, more appropriate to model generation and satisfiability checking.

In a classical logical theory, the proof of a theorem results in a *true* or *false* truth value, or is made in terms of representing something, with respect to one may not be conclusive. In opposition, in a logic program, the answer to a question is only of two types: *true* or *false*. This is a consequence of the limitations of the knowledge representation in a logic program, because it is not allowed explicit representation of negative information. Additionally, the operational semantics applies the Closed-World Assumption (CWA) (Hustadt, 1994) to all the predicates. The generality of logic programs represents implicitly negative information, assuming the application of reasoning according to the CWA.

An extended logic program, on the other hand, is a finite collection of rules of the form (Neves, 1984) (Gelfond and Lisfschitz, 1990):

$$q \leftarrow p_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p_m \wedge not \ p_{m+1} \wedge \dots \wedge not \ p_{m+n}$$
⁽¹⁾

$$p_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p_m \wedge not \ p_{m+1} \wedge \dots \wedge not \ p_{m+n}(2)$$

where ? is a domain atom denoting falsity, the pi, qj, and p are classical ground literals, i.e. either positive atoms or atoms preceded by the classical negation sign \neg . Every program is associated with a set of abducibles. Abducibles can be seen as hypotheses that provide possible solutions or explanations of given queries, being given here in the form of exceptions to the extensions of the predicates that make the program.

The objective is to provide expressive power for representing explicitly negative information, as well as directly describe the CWA for some predicates, also known as predicate circumscription (Parsons, 1996). Three types of answers to a given question are then possible: true, false and unknown. The representation of null values will be scoped by the ELP. In this work, we will consider two types of null values: the first will allow for the representation of unknown values, not necessarily from a given set of values, and the second will represent unknown values from a given set of possible values. We will show now how null values can be used to represent unknown information. In the following, we consider the extensions of the predicates that represent some of the properties of the participants, as a measure of their skills for the decision making process:

```
area_of_expertise: Entities x StrValue
role: Entities x StrValue
credible: Entities x Value
reputed: Entities x Value
```

The first argument denotes the participant and the second represents the value of the property (e.g., credible(luis, 100) means that the credibility of the participant luis has the value 100).

Program 1. Extension of the predicate that states the credibility of a participant

In Program 1, the symbol \neg represents the strong negation, denoting what should be interpreted as false, and the term *not* designates negation-by-failure.

Let us now admit that the credibility of another possible participant *ricardo* has not, yet, been established. This will be denoted by a null value, of the type unknown, and represents the situation in Program 2: the participant is credible but it is not possible to be certain (affirmative) about its value.

Program 2 - Credibility about participant ricardo, with an unknown value

In the second clause of Program 2, the symbol \perp represents a null value of an undefined type. It is a representation that assumes any value as a viable solution, but without being given a clue to conclude about which value one is speaking about. It is not possible to compute, from the positive information, the value of the credibility of the participant *ricardo*. The fourth clause of Program 2 (the closure of predicate credibility) discards the possibility of being assumed as false any question on the specific value of credibility for participant *ricardo*.

Let's now consider the case in which the value of the credibility of a participant is foreseen to be 60, with a margin of mistake of 15. It is not possible to be positive, concerning the credibility value. However, it is false that the participant has a credibility value of 80 or 100. This example suggests that the lack of knowledge may only be associated to a enumerated set of possible known values. As a different case, let's consider the credibility of the participant *paulo*, that is unknown, but one knows that it is specifically 30 or 50.

```
credible(luis,100)

credible(ricardo,\perp)

\negcredible(E,V) \leftarrow

not credible(E,V),

not exception(credible(E,V))

exception(credible(E,V)) \leftarrow

credible(E,\perp)

exception(credible(carlos,V)) \leftarrow

V \ge 45 \land V \le 75

exception(credible(paulo,30))

exception(credible(paulo,50))
```

Program 3 - Representation of the credibility of the participants carlos and paulo

Using Extended Logic Programming, as the logic programming language, a procedure given in terms of the extension of a predicate called *demo* is presented here. This predicate allows one to reason about the body of knowledge presented in a particular domain, set on the formalism previously referred to. Given a question, it returns a solution based on a set of assumptions. This meta predicate is defined as: Demo: Question x Answer

Where Question indicates a theorem to be proved and Answer denotes a truth value (see Program 4): true (T), false (F) or unknown (U).

 $demo(Q,T) \leftarrow Q$ $demo(Q,F) \leftarrow \neg Q$ $demo(Q,U) \leftarrow not Q \land not \neg Q$

Program 4. Extension of meta-predicate demo

3 QUALITY OF KNOWLEDGE

In a majority of situations, the trigger to make a decision is the time period to the decision. It is reasonable to argue that, in any decision making process, the decision is made without having all the information pertaining to the problem. When the decision maker reaches the time limit, he/she makes the decision using the available information, to the best of his/her knowledge.

How does a decision maker is confident about the reliability of the information at hand? In group decisions the situation is more complex: each person that participates in the final decision must be confident on: The reliability of the computer support system; The other decision makers; The information rolling in and out of the system and the information exchanged between participants.

The Group Decision of the VirtualECare system above operates in an such environment.We leave the first issue to others and concentrate in the last two, proposing a model for computing the quality of knowledge.

Let $i \ (i \in 1,..., m)$ represent the predicates whose extensions make an extended logic program that models the universe of discourse and $j \ (j \in 1,..., n)$ the attributes of those predicates. Let $x_j \in [min_j, max_j]$ be a value for attribute j. To each predicate is also associated a scoring function $V_{ij}[min_j, max_j] \rightarrow 0$... 1, that gives the score predicate i assigns to a value of attribute j in the range of its acceptable values, i.e., its domain (for simplicity, scores are kept in the interval $[0 \dots 1]$), here given in the form:

all(attribute_exception_list, sub_expression, invariants)

This denotes that *sub_expression* should hold for each combination of the exceptions of the extensions of the predicates that represent the attributes in the *attribute_exception_list* and the *invariants*.

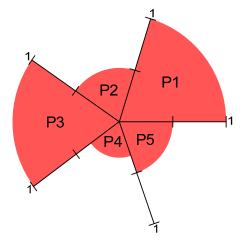


Figure 3 - A measure of the quality of knowledge for a logic program or theory P

This is further translated by introducing three new predicates. The first predicate creates a list of all possible exception combinations (pairs, triples, ..., n-tuples) as a list of sets determined by the domain size (and the invariants). The second predicate recurses through this list and makes a call to the third predicate for each exception denotes combination. The third predicate sub_expression, giving for each predicate, as a result, the respective score function. The Quality of Knowledge (QK) with respect to a generic predicate P is therefore given by $QK_P = 1/Card$, where Card denotes the cardinality of the exception set for P, if the exception set is disjoint. If the exception set is not disjoint, the quality of information is given by:

$$QK_P = \frac{1}{C_1^{Card} + \dots + C_{Card}^{Card}}$$
(3)

where C_{Card}^{Card} is a card-combination subset, with *Card* elements.

The next element of the model to be considered is the relative importance that a predicate assigns to each of its attributes under observation: w_{ij} stands for the relevance of attribute *j* for predicate *i* (it is also assumed that the weights of all predicates are normalized, i.e.:

$$\forall i \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij} = 1 \tag{4}$$

It is now possible to define a predicate's scoring function, i.e., for a value $x = (x_1, ..., n)$ in the multi dimensional space defined by the attributes domains, which is given in the form:

$$V_{i}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij} * V_{ij}(x_{j})$$
(5)

It is now possible to measure the QK that occurs as a result of a logic program, by posting the $V_i(x)$ values into a multi-dimensional space and projecting it onto a two dimensional one.

Using this procedure, it is defined a circle, as the one given in Figure 3. Here, the dashed n-slices of the circle (in this example built on the extensions of five predicates, named as $p_1 \dots p_5$) denote de QK that is associated with each of the predicate extensions that make the logic program. It is now possible to return to our case above and evaluate the global credibility of the system. Let us consider the logic program (Program 5).

```
\negcredible(E,V) \leftarrow not credible(E,V),
           not exception(credible(E,V))
exception(credible(E,V)) \leftarrow
            credible(E, \perp)
credible(luis,100)
credible(ricardo, \perp)
exception(credible(carlos,V)) \leftarrow
            v \ge 45 \land v \le 75
exception(credible(paulo,30))
exception(credible(paulo,50))
\negrole(E,V) \leftarrow not role(E,V),
            not exception(role(E,V))
role(luis,⊥)
role(ricardo,doctor)
exception(role(carlos,doctor))
\negreputed(E,V) \leftarrow not reputed(E,V),
            not exception(reputed(E,V))
exception(reputed(luis,80))
exception(reputed(luis,50))
exception(reputed(ricardo,40))
exception(reputed(ricardo,60))
reputed(carlos,100)
```

Program 5 - Example of universe of discourse

As an example we represent the QK associated with participants *luis* and *ricardo*, depicted in Figures 4 and 5.

In order to find the relationships among the extensions of these predicates, we evaluate the relevance of the QK, given in the form $V_{credible}(luis) = 1; V_{reputed}(luis) = 0.785; V_{role}(luis) = 0.$

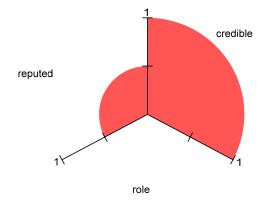
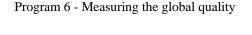


Figure 4 - A measure of quality of knowledge about participant luis

It is now possible to measure the QK associated to a logic program referred to above: the shaded nslices (here n is equal to three) of the circle denote the QK for predicates *credible*, *reputed* and *role*. However, in order to accomplish the main goal of this work, we need to further extend the purpose of Figures 4 and 5, i.e., we may define a new predicate, *trustworthiness*; whose extension may be given in the form of the example (Program 6).

```
¬trustworthiness (X,Y)←
not trustworthiness (X,Y),
not exception(trustworthiness (X,Y))
trustworthiness(luis,((credible,1),(repu
ted,0.785)(role,0)))
trustworthiness(ricardo,((credible,0),(r
eputed,0.785),(role,1)))
```



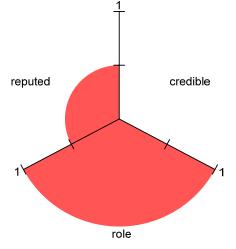


Figure 5 - A measure of quality of knowledge about participant Ricardo

Besides being able to evaluate the quality of individual actors and individual pieces of information that flows in a group decision system, we aim to have an overall mechanism that allows one to measure the global quality of the system itself and, consequently, the outcomes from it. There is too much in stake when we deal with healthcare, and one must raise the confidence on decisions, especially in an environment of uncertainty, incomplete and imperfect information. The same mechanism used to evaluate individual parts of the system is consistently used to evaluate all the system, through an extension process.

4 CONCLUSIONS

Our drive had in mind to measure (quantify) the quality of knowledge of a logic theory or program that makes a VirtualECare System (or Environment). We began with an Extended Logic Programming language to represent incomplete and uncertain knowledge in the context of the VirtualECare GDSS. It was also shown that negation-by-failure combined with strong negation and predicate circumscription, in a logic program, it is a possible foundation for uncertain reasoning.

On the other hand, and starting with the unknown truth value referred to in the extension of the demo predicate, above, we elaborate on a model of quantitative computation of the quality of information presented in a logic program or theory, in terms of a Multi-valued Extended Logic Programming language. This makes the unknown truth value to take truth values on the interval]0..1[, that fulfils our goal of measuring the Quality of Knowledge in a Group Decision Support System for Digital Homecare.

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